Numerical Computations for Univariate Linear Models

by

Gene H. Golub*
Stanford University

and

George P. H. Styan
McGill University

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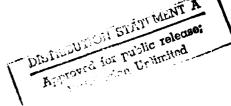
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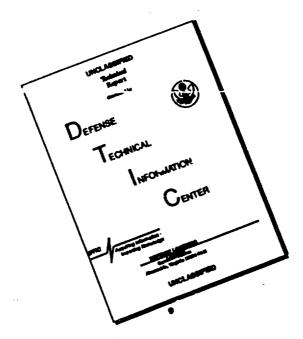
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Numerical Computations for Univariate Linear Models

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Gene H. Golub Stanford University

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Abstract

We consider the usual universate linear model $E(y) = X\gamma$, $V(y) = \sigma^2 I$. In Part One of this paper X has full column rank. Numerically stable and efficient computational procedures are developed for the least squares estimation of γ and the error sum of squares. We employ an orthogonal triangular decomposition of X using Householder transformations. A lower bound for the condition number of X is immediately obtained from this decomposition. Similar computational procedures are presented for the usual F-test of the general linear hypothesis $L^{\dagger}\gamma = 0$; $L^{\dagger}\gamma = m$ is also considered for $m \neq 0$. Updating techniques are given for adding to or removing from (X,y) a row, a set of rows or a column.

In Part Two, χ has less than full rank. Least squares estimates are obtained using generalized inverses. The function $L^i\gamma$ is estimable whenever it admits an unbiased estimator linear in γ . We show how to computationally verify estimability of $L^i\gamma$ and the equivalent testability of $L^i\gamma=0$.

Key Words

Linear Models

Regression Analysis

Numerical Computations

Householder Transformations

Analysis of Variance

Matrix Analysis

Computer Algorithms

PART ONE: UNIVARIATE LINEAR MODEL WITH FULL RANK

1. Least squares estimation and error sum of squares
We consider the univariate general linear model

(1.1)
$$E(y) = X \gamma$$
; $V(y) = \sigma^2 I$,

where $E(\cdot)$ denotes mathematical expectation and $V(\cdot)$ the variance-covariance matrix. We take the <u>design matrix X</u> to be $n \times q$ of rank q < n and known; in part two we relax this assumption of full column rank. The unknown vector γ of q regression coefficients is estimated by least squares from an observation γ by minimizing the sum of squares

$$(1.2) \qquad (y - X\gamma)^*(y - X\gamma) .$$

Prime denotes transposition; bold-face capital letters denote matrices and bold lower-case letters vectors, with rows always appearing primed.

In the case where $V(y) = \sigma^2 A$ in (1.1), with A known and positive definite, we may replace y by Fy and X by FX where F satisfies $FAF^* = I$. The matrix F is not unique but it is possible to find an F which is lower triangular from the Cholesky decomposition of A (cf. e.g., Healy, 1968).

It is well known that the least squares estimate $\hat{\tilde{\chi}}$ satisfies the normal equations

$$(1.3) \qquad \underset{\sim}{X}^{\dagger} X \hat{y} = X^{\dagger} y$$

and is unique when X has full rank. The matrix $X^{\bullet}X$ is greatly

influenced by roundoff errors and is often <u>ill-conditioned</u>: by this we mean that a relatively "small" change in X will induce a correspondingly "large" change in $(X^*X)^{-1}$ and in the solution $\hat{\gamma} = (X^*X)^{-1}X^*y$ to (1.3). For these reasons we prefer to work with X directly rather than X^*X [cf. e.g., Longley (1967), Wampler (1969, 1970)].

It is possible to find an $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix P such that

$$(1.4) X = \mathbf{P} \begin{pmatrix} R \\ \sim \\ 0 \\ \sim \end{pmatrix} ; \mathbf{P}^{t}X = \begin{pmatrix} R \\ \sim \\ 0 \\ \sim \end{pmatrix} ,$$

where R is upper triangular of order $q \times q$. This ortho nal triangular decomposition (CTD) may be made in various ways; a very stable numerical procedure (Golub, 1965) is to obtain P as the product of q Householder transformations.

A square matrix of the form $H = I - 2uu^*$, where $u^*u = 1$, is defined to be a Householder transformation. Clearly $H = H^*$ and $HH^* = H^*H = H^2 = I$, so that H is a symmetric and orthogonal matrix. All but one of the characteristic roots of H are unity, the simple root being -1.

A vector x may be transformed by a Householder transformation to a vector with each element zero except for the first, i.e.,

(1.5)
$$\text{Hx} = \text{re}_1 \; ; \; \text{r} \neq 0 \; ,$$

say, where e is an n vector with each component 0 except for the j-th which is 1 (j = 1, 2, ..., n). Premultiplying (1.5) by its transpose yields

(1.6)
$$x'x = x'H'Hx = r^2e_{1}'e_{1} = r^2$$
.

Substituting $H = I - 2uu^*$ in (1.5) gives

(1.7)
$$x - 2(u^*x)u = re_1$$
;

premultiplication by u^* yields $-u^*x = ru_1$, where $u_1 = e_1^*u$, the first element in u. Substitution in (1.7) gives $x + 2ru_1u = re_1$, so that with $x = \{x_i\}$,

(1.8)
$$2u_1^2 = 1 - (x_1/r)$$
; $2u_i = -x_i/(ru_1)$, $i = 2,...,n$.

The first expression will always be computed positive if the square root of (1.6) is taken as

(1.9)
$$r = -sgn(x_1) \cdot (x^*x)^{1/2}$$
,

where $sgn(x_1) = +1$ if $x_1 \ge 0$ and -1 otherwise. Then

(1.10)
$$2u_1^2 = 1 + (|x_1|/s)$$
; $2u_i = sgn(x_1) \cdot x_i/(su_1)$, $i = 2,...,n$,

where

(1.11)
$$s = +(x^*x)^{1/2}$$

This gives $u^*u = 1$, for $2u_1^2 = x_1^2/(2s^2u_1^2) = x_1^2/(s^2 + s|x_1|)$, i = 2,...,n.

Hence
$$2\sum_{i=2}^{n}u_{i}^{2} = (s^{2}-x_{1}^{2})/(s^{2}+s|x_{1}|) = 1-(|x_{1}|/s) = 2(1-u_{1}^{2})$$
. We note

that H need not be computed explicitly as $Hx = x - 2(u^*x)u$, for which we need only u and v^* . In the above form, it is necessary to compute two square roots per Householder transformation; if, however, we write $H = I - u(u^*u)^{-1}u^*$ then only one square root need be calculated (Businger and Golub, 1965).

Applying this procedure with x replaced by Xe_1 , we obtain

(1.12)
$$HX = (r_{11}e_1, X_1)$$
,

Partitioning $P = (P_1, P_2)$, with P_1 nxq and P_2 nx(n-q) gives from (1.4)

with $\Pr[P] = I_q$, $\Pr[P] = 0$ and $\Pr[P] = I_{n-q}$, since $\Pr[P] = I_n$. If, in the above algorithm, we simultaneously apply the q Householder transformations to the observation vector y, then we have

$$(1.14) \qquad \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{P}^{\dagger}\mathbf{y}} = \begin{pmatrix} \underbrace{\mathbf{P}_{1}^{\dagger}\mathbf{y}} \\ \underbrace{\mathbf{P}_{2}^{\dagger}\mathbf{y}} \\ \underbrace{\mathbf{P}_{2}^{\dagger}\mathbf{y}} \\ \mathbf{P}_{2}^{\dagger}\mathbf{y} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{z} \\ \mathbf{z} \\ \mathbf{z} \\ \mathbf{z} \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\mathbf{z}}_{2} ,$$

say. Thus $z_2 = P_{22}^t y$ has expectation $E(P_{22}^t y) = P_{22}^t x y = 0$ and covariance

matrix $V(P_{22}^*) = \sigma^2 P_{222}^* = \sigma^2 I_{n-q}$. Hence z_2 is an easily computed vector of <u>uncorrelated regression residuals</u> and may be used to test for serial correlation (cf. e.g., Grossman and Styan, 1970). It follows that

(1.15)
$$P_{2}P_{2}^{i} + X(X^{i}X)^{-1}X^{i} = I_{n}$$
,

as each term on the left-hand side is idempotent and their cross-product is 0; their sum is idempotent with rank the sum of the ranks n-q and q. So $P_2P_2^* = I - X(X^*X)^{-1}X^*$ and $Z_2^*Z_2 = y^*P_2P_2^*y = (y - X_2^*)^*(y - X_2^*)$ is the error sum of squares S_e , say -- the minimum of (1.2). It is simply computed here as the sum of squares of the n-q elements in $Z_2 = P_2^*y$.

The vector of (correlated) residuals $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is often essential for analysis of the linear model (cf. e.g., Draper and Smith, 1966). Though the matrix \mathbf{P} may not be computed explicitly it can be retrieved as the product of \mathbf{q} Householder transformations when the corresponding \mathbf{q} \mathbf{u} vectors have been stored (which we recommend). Hence we compute $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{z}_2$, since $\mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{z}_2 = \mathbf{P}_2\mathbf{P}_2^{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{y} = [\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{v}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathbf{v}}]\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{r}$. However, it has been observed by Gentleman (1970) that computing \mathbf{r} in this fashion may be numerically unstable.

We also find from (1.4) that

$$(1.16) \qquad \underset{\sim}{X^{\dagger}X} = (\underset{\sim}{R^{\dagger}}, \underset{\sim}{0}) P^{\dagger} P \begin{pmatrix} R \\ \sim \\ 0 \\ \sim \end{pmatrix} = \underset{\sim}{R^{\dagger}R} .$$

Substitution in (1.3) yields $R'R\hat{y} = (R', 0)P'y = R'z_1$, so that solving

$$(1.17) R\hat{\gamma} = z_1$$

gives $\hat{\gamma}$. This is expedited by $\frac{R}{\tilde{\gamma}}$ being upper triangular.

We note that R^*R is a Cholesky factorization of X^*X , for which Healy (1968) has given a Fortran program.

The estimator $\hat{\gamma}$ has covariance matrix $V(\hat{\gamma}) = \sigma^2(X^*X)^{-1}$; an unbiased estimate is $S_e(X^*X)^{-1}/(n-q)$ which is easily computed using (1.16) as $(z_2^*z_2)R^{-1}(R^{-1})^*/(n-q)$. The generalized variance (cf. e.g., Anderson, 1958) is $|V(\hat{\gamma})| = \sigma^{2q}/|X^*X|$, where $|\cdot|$ denotes determinant. In optimal design theory a problem is to choose X so that $|X^*X|$ is maximized thus reducing $|V(\hat{\gamma})|$ as much as possible. Again using (1.16) we see that $|X^*X| = |R^*R| = \prod_{i=1}^{q} r_{ii}^2$, as R is upper triangular. Hence $|V(\hat{\gamma})|$ is estimated by $[z_2^*z_2^*z_2^*/(n-q)]^q/\prod_{i=1}^{q} r_{ii}^2$.

A measure of the ill-conditioning of a matrix is its <u>condition number</u> which we define as the ratio of the largest and smallest nonzero singular values of the matrix. The singular values of a (possibly rectangular) matrix A are the positive square roots of the characteristic roots of A'A or AA'. When the condition number far exceeds the rank we find (cf. Wilkinson, 1967) that the matrix is extremely ill-conditioned.

A lower bound for the condition number $\kappa(X)$ of the design matrix X is the ratio of the largest and smallest (in absolute value) diagonal elements of R. To see this we note first that X and $P^{\dagger}X$ have the same singular values, due to the orthogonality of P. As $P^{\dagger}X$ is merely R bordered by zeroes, sg(X) = sg(R), where $sg(\cdot)$ denotes singular value. For any square matrix A of order $n \times n$,

$$(1.18) sg_n(A) \leq |ch_j(A)| \leq sg_1(A) ; j = 1,...,n$$

with ch(•) denoting characteristic root. The subscript j indicates

j-th largest. To prove (1.18) when A has real roots, let $\lambda = \mathrm{ch}_j(A)$ with $Av = \lambda v$. Then

$$(1.19) \operatorname{sg}_{1}^{2}(A) = \operatorname{ch}_{1}(A^{\dagger}A) = \max_{x} \left[\underbrace{x^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}Ax}_{x} \underbrace{x^{\dagger}x}_{x} \right] \ge \underbrace{v^{\dagger}A^{\dagger}Av}_{x} \underbrace{v^{\dagger}v}_{x} =$$

$$= \lambda v^{\dagger} A^{\dagger} v / v^{\dagger} v = \lambda^{2} .$$

Similarly $sg_n^2(A) \le \lambda^2$. Thus

$$(1.20) \qquad \varkappa(X) = \frac{\operatorname{sg}_{1}(X)}{\operatorname{sg}_{q}(X)} = \frac{\operatorname{sg}_{1}(R)}{\operatorname{sg}_{q}(R)} \geq \frac{\operatorname{max} |\operatorname{ch}(R)|}{\operatorname{min} |\operatorname{ch}(R)|} = \frac{\operatorname{max} |r_{ii}|}{\operatorname{min} |r_{ii}|}.$$

Other properties of $\kappa(A)$ are given by Wilkinson (1967).

Why is the condition number important and how can we use the relationship (1.20)? Let $\tilde{\gamma}$ be the computed approximation to $\hat{\gamma}$ which satisfies (1.3). Suppose that we wish to determine an upper bound for the norm of the relative error of $\tilde{\gamma}$:

(1.21)
$$\|\hat{\hat{y}} - \tilde{\hat{y}}\| / \|\hat{\hat{y}}\|$$
,

where $\|\mathbf{a}\|$ indicates the Euclidean norm $(\mathbf{a}^*\mathbf{a})^{1/2}$. Define

$$(1.22) \qquad \tilde{r} = y - X\tilde{\gamma} ,$$

which we can compute quite accurately. Then

$$(1.23) \qquad \mathbf{r} - \tilde{\mathbf{r}} = -\mathbf{x}(\hat{\mathbf{y}} \cdot \tilde{\mathbf{y}}) \quad ,$$

and hence

$$(1.24) -X^{\dagger}X(\hat{\gamma}-\tilde{\gamma}) = -X^{\dagger}\tilde{r} ,$$

since X'r = 0. Thus

From (1.3), $\|X^{\dagger}X\hat{y}\| = \|X^{\dagger}y\|$, so that

(1.26)
$$\|\ddot{x} \cdot \ddot{y}\| \leq \|\hat{\hat{y}}\| \operatorname{sg}_{1}^{2}(\ddot{x})$$
.

Combining (1.25) and (1.26), we have

Thus we see that the condition number may be used for determining an upper bound for the relative error of $\|\tilde{\chi}\|$. This upper bound is the product of two factors; the first of which, $\kappa^2(X)$, is independent of χ . However, the lower bound provided by (1.20) would in some circumstances give insight into the relative error. Hence, if

(1.28)
$$\left[\max_{i=1}^{n} |/\min_{i=1}^{n}|\right]^{2} \left\| x \cdot \tilde{r} \right\| / \left\| x \cdot y \right\|$$

is large, then it is likely that the relative error in $\parallel \tilde{\tilde{\chi}} \parallel$ is large.

The numerical efficiency of the above orthogonal triangular decomposition is enhanced (cf. Golub, 1965) if the column selected for each of the q Householder transformations maximizes the corresponding sum of squares. That is, at the j-th stage (j = 1, ..., q) we transform that column of the q-j+l possibilities which maximizes the sum of squares of its last n-j+l components. The interchanges may be summarized in a permutation matrix η postmultiplying χ . Thus (1.4) becomes

$$(1.29) \qquad X = \mathbf{P} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R} \\ \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{O} \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{\mathbf{H}^{\dagger}}{\sim} \quad ; \qquad \mathbf{P}^{\dagger} X \stackrel{\mathbf{H}}{\sim} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R} \\ \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{O} \end{pmatrix} .$$

The vector \mathbf{z} does not change and hence neither does \mathbf{S}_e . The solution (1.17) changes however; substituting (1.29) into (1.3) now gives $\mathbf{TR}^*\mathbf{RT}^*\hat{\gamma} = \mathbf{TR}^*\mathbf{z}_1, \text{ so that}$

$$(1.30) \qquad \underset{\sim}{\mathbb{R}}(\underline{\eta}^{*}\hat{\gamma}) = \underset{\sim}{\mathbb{Z}}_{1} = \underset{\sim}{\mathbb{R}}\underline{\theta} \quad ,$$

is solved for θ , and $\hat{\gamma} = \pi\theta$. As these interchanges only rearrange the r_{ii} we still find $|X^iX| = \prod_{i=1}^q r_{ii}^2$. The lower bound for the condition number simplifies, however, as with these interchanges $\max |r_{ii}| = |r_{ll}|$, and $\min |r_{ii}| = |r_{qq}|$ so that $\kappa(X) \geq |r_{ll}/r_{qq}|$.

Given the nxn matrix

$$(1.31) \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1, -1, -1, \dots, -1 \\ 0, 1, -1, \dots, -1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0, 0, 0, \dots, 1 \end{bmatrix} ,$$

we see that $\max |\mathbf{r}_{ii}| = \min |\mathbf{r}_{ii}| = 1$, and so $\kappa(A) \ge 1$, since A = R when no column interchanges are made. However, if column interchanges are performed then for n = 10 say, $|\mathbf{r}_{11}| = 3.162$, $|\mathbf{r}_{nn}| = .003383$ and $\kappa(A) \ge 934.8$. The octual value of $\kappa(A) = 1918.5$.

The Fortran IV programs LLSQ and DLLSQ (double-precision) in the Scientific Subroutine Package (SSP) of IBM (1968) solve the least squares problem as described above. The SSP library is available at many IBM 360 computing centers. The SSP manual gives a write-up of the procedure and

indicates how $\hat{\gamma}$ and S_e are output. In addition we note that the q diagonal elements of R are output as 'AUX(q+1,...,2q)', with $\max |r_{ii}| = \text{AUX}(q+1)$ and $\min |r_{ii}| = \text{AUX}(2q)$ in absolute value. The remaining nonzero elements of R are overwritten in corresponding positions of X (input as 'A'). The vector z is overwritten on y (input as 'B') and S_e appears in 'AUX(1)'. The solution $\hat{\gamma}$ is output as 'X'.

The number of multiplications to obtain R is about $nq^2 - q^3/3$, whereas approximately $nq^2/2$ multiplications are required to form the normal equations (1.3) with about $q^3/6$ multiplications needed to solve them. Thus when n-q is small, the number of operations is roughly the same for both algorithms, but when n-q is large, it requires about twice as many operations to use the orthogonalization procedure.

The orthogonal triangular decomposition (1.4) or (1.29) is very similar to the Gram-Schmidt decomposition. Indeed if n=q and there is no roundoff error and all r_{ii} are taken positive, then the Householder and Gram-Schmidt algorithms yield precisely the same transformation. Although the modified Gram-Schmidt process (cf. e.g., Golub, 1969) may be used for solving linear least squares problems, the computed vectors may not be truly orthogonal! The Householder transformations, however, yield vectors which are more nearly orthogonal (Wilkinson, 1965). Furthermore, not only do the first q columns of p span the same space as the columns of p span the complement of the space spanned by the columns of p span the complement of the space spanned by the columns of p span the seen above, this is quite useful.

2. Hypothesis testing and estimation under constraints

Let us consider the general linear hypothesis

$$(2.1) \qquad \mathbf{L}^{\dagger} \gamma = 0$$

for the linear model of Section 1. The contrast matrix L^* is taken as $s \times q$ of full row rank $s \leq q$. If we assume that y is normally distributed then $L^*\hat{\gamma}$ is $N(L^!\gamma, \sigma^2L^*(X^!X)^{-1}L)$, with $\hat{\gamma} = (X^!X)^{-1}X^!y$. The numerator of the usual F-test for (2.1) is then well known to be

(2.2)
$$\hat{\gamma}^{i} L[L^{i}(X^{i}X)^{-1}L]^{-1}L^{i}\hat{\gamma} = S_{h}$$
,

say, the "hypothesis sum of squares". Substituting (1.16) and (1.17) into (2.2) gives

(2.3)
$$S_{h} = z_{1}^{*}(R^{-1})^{*} L [L^{*}R^{-1}(R^{-1})^{*} L]^{-1} L^{*}R^{-1}z_{1}.$$

We compute $(R^{-1})^*L = G$, say, by solving $R^*G = L$, with R^* lower triangular. We then obtain an orthogonal triangular decomposition of G, $q \times s$ $(q \ge s)$,

$$(2.4) \qquad \overset{\circ}{G} = (\overset{\circ}{R}^{-1}) \overset{\circ}{L} = \overset{\circ}{Q} \begin{pmatrix} \overset{\circ}{B} \\ \overset{\circ}{O} \end{pmatrix} ,$$

say, where B is upper triangular $s \times s$ and the orthogonal matrix Q is the product of s Householder transformations. Then G'G = B'B; partitioning $Q = (Q_1, Q_2)$, where Q_1 is $q \times s$ and Q_2 $q \times (q-s)$ gives $G = Q_1B$ from (2.4). Substitution in (2.3) yields

(2.5)
$$S_h = z_1^i Q_1 Q_1^i z_1$$

which we compute by applying the s Householder transformations of (2.4) to z_1 simultaneously with x_2 and then summing the squares of the first s components of the transformed z_1 .

If we test the hypothesis

$$(2.6) \qquad \mathbf{L}^{\dagger} \gamma = \mathbf{m} \quad ,$$

where \underline{m} is a given $s \times l$ vector, not necessarily $\underline{0}$, then we proceed by computing $\underline{L}^{t}\hat{\gamma} - \underline{h} = \underline{h}$, say, and sum the squares of the components of $(\underline{B}^{-1})^{t}\underline{h}$; we find the latter by solving $\underline{L}^{t}\hat{\gamma} - \underline{m} = \underline{h} = \underline{B}^{t}\underline{t}$, say, for \underline{t} , with \underline{B}^{t} lower triangular.

The described procedure can be improved upon when $\,s>q\text{-}s$. We first obtain an orthogonal triangular decomposition of L ,

$$(2.7) \qquad \overset{\mathbf{L}}{\sim} = \overset{\mathbf{T}}{\sim} \begin{pmatrix} \overset{\mathbf{U}}{\sim} \\ \overset{\circ}{\circ} \\ \overset{\circ}{\sim} \end{pmatrix} ,$$

say, where T is orthogonal and U upper triangular. Partitioning $T = (T_1, T_2)$, where T_1 is $q \times s$ and T_2 is $q \times (q-s)$ leads to

$$(2.8) \qquad \underset{\sim}{\text{L'T}} = \underset{\sim}{\text{U'}} \quad ; \quad \underset{\sim}{\text{L'T}} = \underset{\sim}{\text{O}} \quad .$$

Thus $L^{\dagger}\gamma = 0$ if and only if $\gamma = T_2\theta$ for some θ , now unconstrained. Hence

(2.9)
$$\min_{\mathbf{L}^{\dagger} \gamma = 0} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \gamma)^{\dagger} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \gamma) = \min_{\mathbf{Q}} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{T}_{2} \mathbf{Q})^{\dagger} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{T}_{2} \mathbf{Q}) .$$

Using (1.4) and (1.14), we see that (2.9) reduces to

(2.10)
$$\min_{\Theta} (z_1 - RT_{\Theta}) \cdot (z_1 - RT_{\Theta}) + z_2 \cdot z_2,$$

so that S_h equals the first term in (2.10) which is easily computed as in Section 1 with z_1 replacing y and RT_2 replacing X. Since (cf. e.g., Good (1965), p. 89),

$$(2.11) sg_1(XT) \ge sg_1(XT_2) ,$$

$$(2.12) sg_{q}(XT) \leq sg_{q-s+1}(XT) \leq sg_{q-s}(XT),$$

we have

$$(2.13) \qquad \varkappa(XT_2) \leq \varkappa(XT) = \varkappa(X) .$$

Thus, by climinating the constraints, the linear least squares problem may become better conditioned.

The least squares estimate χ^* , say, of χ subject to $L^! \chi = 0$ is obtained from the solution $\hat{\theta}$ to (2.10) by

$$(2.14) \qquad \overset{\mathsf{y}}{\overset{\mathsf{x}}{\sim}} = \overset{\mathtt{T}}{\overset{\mathsf{o}}{\sim}} \overset{\mathsf{o}}{\overset{\mathsf{o}}{\sim}} .$$

If the constraints have nonnull righthand side m as in (2.9) then the procedure is changed as follows. Evidently $L^!\gamma = m$ holds if and only if $\gamma = T_2\theta + T_1(U^{-1})^*m = T_2\theta + T_1w$, say. We obtain w by solving $m = U^*w$, with U^* lower triangular. Thus y is replaced by $y - XT_1w$ and hence z_1 by $z_1 - RT_1w$ the resulting value of S_h is therefore

(2.15)
$$\min_{\Theta} (z_1 - RT_1 w - RT_2 \Theta) \cdot (z_1 - RT_1 w - RT_2 \Theta)$$

which we compute as in Section 1 with $z_1 - RT_1 w$ replacing y and RT_2 replacing x.

The relevant F-test for the hypotheses (2.1) or (2.6) is then computed as

$$(2.16) F = \frac{S_h/s}{S_e/(n-q)} ,$$

with the critical region formed by values of (2.16) exceeding the corresponding tabulated value of F with s and n-q degrees of freedom.

In some special, though common, situations the above computations simplify considerably.

If we test a single contrast in γ equal to 0 we obtain (2.1) with s=1. Let us write this as

(2.17)
$$t^*\gamma = 0$$
.

A particular case might be testing a single regression coefficient equal to 0. Then $(R^{-1})^*L = K$ becomes $(R^{-1})^*L = K$, say, found by solving $L = R^*K$ as before. Then (2.3) becomes

(2.18)
$$(l^*\hat{\gamma})^2 / k^*k = S_h$$
,

and we compute the denominator in (2.18) by summing squares of components in ${\,}^{\rm k}$. The one-sided t-test for

$$(2.19) \qquad \underset{\sim}{l}^{\dagger} \gamma > 0$$

has critical region large positive values of $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \int_{-\infty$

$$(2.20) \qquad \gamma = \Theta t \quad ,$$

where θ is now a scalar. The vector t is often found upon inspection (without transforming L). For example in testing for homogeneity of coefficients of γ , we have t = e, the vector with each component unity. Substituting t for t in (2.10) yields

(2.21)
$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{z! Rt}{z!} \frac{t! R'Rt}{z},$$

and

$$(2.22) S_h = z_1^* z_1 - (z_1 Rt)^2 / t_1^* R^* Rt ,$$

with the denominators computed by summing squares of elements of $\ensuremath{\mathsf{Rt}}$.

Updating procedures

After a particular set of data has been analyzed it is often pertinent to add to or remove from X and y a row (or set of rows or to add to or remove from X a column. This happens when new information becomes available or when existing experimental units have been classified as extreme, or independent variables insignificant.

We begin by considering the addition of data from m , say, further experimental units. Let X_m and y_m be the corresponding data of order m \times q and m \times l respectively. Following (1.4) and (1.14) we may write

$$(3.1) \qquad \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{I}_{m} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{P}^{\bullet} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}_{m} & \mathbf{y}_{m} \\ \mathbf{X} & \mathbf{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{X}_{m} & \mathbf{y}_{m} \\ \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{z}_{1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{z}_{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Applying q Householder transformations of order m+q to the first m+q rows of (3.1) yields

$$(3.2) \qquad \begin{pmatrix} X_{m} & Y_{m} \\ R & Z_{1} \end{pmatrix} = P_{1} \begin{pmatrix} R_{1} & Z_{0}^{*} \\ 0 & Z_{1}^{*} \end{pmatrix} ,$$

say, where R_1 is $q \times q$ upper triangular, z_0^* is $q \times 1$ and z_1^* is $m \times 1$. Hence

$$(3.3) \qquad \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{P}_{2}^{1}} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{x} & \mathbf{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{1} & \mathbf{z}_{0}^{*} \\ \mathbf{x}_{1} & \mathbf{z}_{0}^{*} \\ \mathbf{x}_{2} & \mathbf{z}_{1}^{*} \\ \mathbf{x}_{2} & \mathbf{z}_{2}^{*} \end{pmatrix}$$

where

$$(3.4) \qquad \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{P}_{2}^{i}} = \begin{pmatrix} \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{P}_{1}^{i}} & \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{O}} \\ \\ \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{O}} & \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{I}_{n-q}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{I}_{m}} & \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{O}} \\ \\ \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{O}} & \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{P}_{1}^{i}} \end{pmatrix}$$

is an orthogonal matrix formed from 2q Householder transformations, and has order m+n. The new residual sum of squares is $z_1^* z_1^* + z_2^* z_2^*$, i.e., the previous sum of squares, $z_2^* z_2^*$, augmented by the sum of squares of the m components of z_1^* ; these components themselves give m additional uncorrelated residuals.

Next, suppose we wish to add a (q+1)-th variable whose n values constitute a vector x. We first compute P^*x by applying in turn the q Householder transformations determined by the stored vectors u (cf. residual calculations in Section 1). We need then only one further Householder transformation, H, say, of order n-q to annihilate the last n-q-1 elements in P^*x , i.e.,

$$(3.5) \qquad \begin{pmatrix} I_{q} & 0 \\ 0 & H \\ 0 & \kappa \end{pmatrix} \underbrace{P^{\dagger}(X,x)}_{r} = \begin{pmatrix} R & P^{\dagger}x \\ 0 & L^{\star} \\ 0 & R^{\star}z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R & P^{\dagger}x \\ 0 & R^{\star}z \\ 0 & R^{\star}z \end{pmatrix}$$

where $P = (P_1, P_2)$, as in §1, and $h = x^*P_2P_2^*x$, the sum of squares of the last n-q components of P^*x .

The procedure for removing an experimental unit is more complicated. The method given previously by Golub and Saunders (1970), may under certain circumstances prove unstable. We now give a new method which should provide a more accurate solution.

Suppose we want to remove x_i^* , the i-th row of X. We seek an upper triangular matrix S, say, so that

(3.6)
$$X^{i}X - x_{i}x_{i}^{i} = R^{i}R - x_{i}x_{i}^{i} = S^{i}S = R^{i}(I - tt^{i})R$$
,

say, where $R^{t}t = x_{i}$; the vector t is easily computed since R^{t} is lower triangular. We now construct an orthogonal matrix Q so that $Qt = ce_{i}$; thus $c^{2} = t^{t}t = x_{i}^{t}(R^{t}R)^{-1}x_{i} = e_{i}^{t}X(X^{t}X)^{-1}X^{t}e_{i} \leq 1$. We define the quasi-diagonal matrices of order $q \times q$:

(3.7)
$$Z_{k} = \begin{bmatrix} I_{k-1} \\ \Theta_{k} \\ I_{q-k-1} \end{bmatrix} ; k = 1, ..., q-1 ,$$

where

(3.8)
$$\Theta_{k} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta_{k}, \sin \theta_{k} \\ -\sin \theta_{k}, \cos \theta_{k} \end{pmatrix} ; \quad k = 1, ..., q-1 .$$

Clearly Z_k and Θ_k are orthogonal. Let

(3.9)
$$(R_{\ell}, t_{\ell}) = Z_{c-\ell}(R_{\ell-1}, t_{\ell-1})$$
; $\ell = 1, ..., q-1$,

with $t_0 = t$ and $t_0 = t$. We choose θ_k so that $t_0 = t$ annihilates $t_0 = t_0 = t$ and hence $t_0 = t_0 = t_0 = t$ and hence $t_0 = t_0 = t_0 = t_0 = t_0 = t_0$. Then the matrix

(3.10)
$$Q = Z_1 Z_2 \dots Z_{q-1}$$

satisfies $Qt = ce_1$ and is orthogonal. From (3.6) we may write

(3.11)
$$S^*S = R^*Q^*(I - c^2e_1e_1^*) QR$$
,

which is positive definite if and only if $c^2 > 1$. It follows that

(3.12)
$$QR = W = \begin{bmatrix}
w_{11}, w_{12}, \dots w_{1,q-1}, w_{1q} \\
w_{21}, w_{22}, \dots w_{2,q-1}, w_{2q} \\
0, w_{32}, \dots w_{3,q-1}, w_{3q} \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\
0, 0, \dots w_{q,q-1}, w_{qq}
\end{bmatrix}$$

is an upper Hessenberg matrix. Thus (3.11) becomes $S^*S = W^*D^2W$, with

$$(3.13) \qquad D = \begin{pmatrix} (1-c^2)^{1/2} & 0! \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & q-1 \end{pmatrix}$$

which is real when $c^2 < 1$. We compute \tilde{S} by applying orthogonal transformations to the upper Hessenberg matrix DW . Let

$$(3.14)$$
 $S_k = Z_k^* S_{k-1}$; $k = 1, ..., q-1$,

with $S_0 = DW$ and Z_k^* formed as Z_k in (3.7) but with θ_k^* replacing θ_k and so chosen that Z_k^* annihilates $e_{k+1}^* S_k e_k = e_{k+1}^* D_{k+1}^* D_{k+1}^* E_k e_k$ and thus $e_{k+1}^* S_k e_k = 0$. Then

(3.15)
$$S = S_{q-1} = Z_{q-1}^* Z_{q-2}^* \cdots Z_{2}^* Z_{1}^* DW .$$

This procedure requires about $9q^2/2$ multiplications and 2q-1 square roots.

The above algorithm can also be used for adding an observation but about twice as many numerical operations are required as in the procedure given by (3.3) and (3.4). We also note that the problem of deleting an observation is numerically delicate. Since

(3.16)
$$S^*S = R^*(I - tt^*)R$$
,

it follows that

(3.17)
$$\kappa(S) \leq \kappa(R) / (1 - t^*t)^{1/2}$$
.

Thus if to is close to 1, then $\kappa(S)$ could be quite large as the right-hand side of (3.17) is attainable.

Finally suppose we wish to remove an independent variable or column of X . If it is the last then no further calculations are required; but suppose it is the first. Let

(3.18)
$$\begin{array}{c} R = \begin{pmatrix} r_{11} & r_{12} & \cdots & r_{1q} \\ 0 & r_{22} & \cdots & r_{2q} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & r_{qq} \end{pmatrix} = (r_{11} \stackrel{e}{=}_{11}, \tilde{R})$$

where \bar{R} is $q \times (q-1)$ and has one more row than an upper Hessenberg matrix. We annihilate the elements just below the main diagonal of \bar{R} , i.e., r_{22}, \ldots, r_{qq} by applying orthogonal transformations of the type (3.7) with

(3.19)
$$R_k = Z_k R_{-k-1}$$
; $k = 1, ..., q-1$,

and $R_0 = \bar{R}$; we choose θ_k in Z_k so that $e_{k+1}^{\dagger} R_{k-1} e_k = r_{k+1,k+1}$ is annihilated; thus $e_{k+1}^{\dagger} R_k e_k = 0$ and R_{q-1} is the new triangular matrix sought.

PART TWO: UNIVARIATE LINEAR MODEL WITH LESS

THAN FULL RANK

4. Least squares estimation and error sum of squares

We consider now the univariate general linear model (1.1),

(4.1)
$$E(y) = X\gamma$$
, $V(y) = \sigma^2 I$,

with the design matrix $\frac{x}{r}$ of rank r < q < n. We obtain the same normal equations as (1.3),

$$(4.2) X^{\dagger}X \hat{y} = X^{\dagger}y$$

which are consistent; their solution, however, may not be unique. Consider a solution to (4.2) which we may write

$$(4.3) \qquad \hat{\gamma} = (X'X) \bar{X'Y} ,$$

where $(\cdot)^-$ denotes generalized inverse. We follow Pringle and Rayner (1971) and define a generalized inverse of a matrix $\overset{A}{\sim}$, $m \times n$, as any matrix $\overset{A}{\sim}$ satisfying

$$(4.4) \qquad AA^{-}A = A \qquad .$$

Evidently A has order $n \times m$. Such a generalized inverse exists but is not unique in general; i., however, A satisfies (4.4) and

$$(4.5) \qquad \overset{A}{\sim} \overset{A}{\sim} \overset{A}{\sim} = \overset{A}{\sim} ;$$

$$(4.6) \qquad (AA^{-})^{\dagger} - AA^{-} ,$$

$$(4.7) \qquad (\stackrel{A}{A})^{\dagger} = \stackrel{A}{A} \stackrel{A}{A} ,$$

then we write $A = A^+$, the pseudo-inverse of A. When we only require that (4.4) is satisfied we will write $A = g_1(A) - a g_1 - inverse$ of A. Similarly when (4.4) and (4.5) are satisfied, $A = g_{12}(A)$; (4.4), (4.5), and (4.6): $A = g_{123}(A)$. The pseudo-inverse $A^{\dagger} = g_{1234}(A)$. The solution $\hat{\chi}_0$, say, to (1.3) which minimizes $\hat{\chi}^{\dagger}\hat{\chi}$ equals $\hat{\chi}^{\dagger}\hat{\chi}$ as is shown, for example, by Peters and Wilkinson (1970). Our concern, however, focuses were on estimable functions of γ , rather than γ per se so we will not discuss here computation of $\hat{\gamma}_{0}$. We define an <u>estimable function</u> of γ as a vector $\mathbf{L}^{\intercal}\gamma$ which admits an unbiased estimator of the form $K^{\bullet}y$, where L^{\bullet} is $s \times q$, say, and K^{\bullet} , $s \times n$. The least squares estimate is then $L^*\hat{\gamma} = L^*(X^*X)^TX^*y$ so that $K^* = L^*(X^*X)^TX^*$. We shall see (Section 5) that when $L^{\dagger}\gamma$ is estimable, $L^{\dagger}(X^{\dagger}X)^{\top}X^{\dagger}$ is unique for all $(x'x)^- = g_1(x'x)$. Rather than form x'x, find a $g_1(x'x)$ and then postmultiply it by X^* , we compute a $g_{123}(X)$ directly, noting that Gis a $g_1(A)$ if and only if it can be written as $(A^*A)^*A^*$ for some $g_1(A'A) = (A'A)^-$ [Pringle and Rayner (1971), p. 26].

We proceed as in Section 1 to orthogonally transform X by Householder transformations with column interchanges. If X has rank x then after x Householder transformations we obtain, cf. (1.29),

$$(4.8) X = \mathbf{P} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{S} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{O} \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{\Pi}^{\mathsf{c}} ; \mathbf{P}^{\mathsf{e}} X \mathbf{\Pi} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R} & \mathbf{S} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{O} \\ \mathbf{O} & \mathbf{O} \end{pmatrix} ,$$

where R is upper triangular, rxr, S is rx(q-r), and Π is a permutation matrix of order qxq. We now claim that

(4.9)
$$X^* = \pi \begin{pmatrix} R^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} P^* = g_{123}(X)$$
.

We have
$$XX^* = P\begin{pmatrix} I & O \\ O & O \\ O & O \end{pmatrix}P^*$$
, clearly symmetric. Hence $XX^*X = P\begin{pmatrix} R & S \\ O & O \\ O & O \end{pmatrix}$ $\pi^* = X$,

while
$$X \times XX = \pi \begin{pmatrix} R^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} P^{\dagger} = X$$
 so that (4.9) is proved. The solution

 $\hat{\gamma} = \hat{X}^*y$ to (4.2) afforded by (4.9) is often called a <u>basic solution</u> as it contains at most q-r nonzero elements.

Thus (4.9) accompdates our purposes; moreover we do not have a stronger g-inverse than is needed. As in Section 1 we partition $P = (P_1, P_2)$, but now let P_1 be $n \times r$ and P_2 $n \times (n-r)$. From (4.8) it follows, cf. (1.13), that

(4.10)
$$P_1 X \Pi = (R, S)$$

$$(4.11) P_{2}^{*}X = 0 .$$

Following (1.14) we now write

$$(4.12) \qquad \mathbf{P}^{\dagger}\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{P}_{1}^{\dagger}\mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{P}_{2}^{\dagger}\mathbf{y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{z} \\ \mathbf{z} \\ \mathbf{z}_{2} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{z} ,$$

where z_1 is now rx1 and z_2 (n-r)x1. Thus z_2 is again a vector of uncorrelated residuals; moreover

(4.13)
$$P_{2}P_{2}^{i} + X(X^{i}X)^{T}X^{i} = I_{n}$$
,

as in (1.15), with $P_2 P_2^*$ idempotent rank n-r and $X(X^*X) X^*$ symmetric idempotent rank r. By (4.11) their cross-product is 0 and so their sum is idempotent rank (n-r)+r = n and hence I_n as claimed. Thus

$$(4.14) \qquad \underset{2}{\overset{*}{\sim}} z_{2} = \underset{\sim}{\overset{*}{\sim}} (\underbrace{1} - \underset{\sim}{\overset{*}{\sim}} (\underset{\sim}{\overset{*}{\sim}} \underset{\sim}{\overset{*}{\sim}} \underset{\sim}{\overset{*}{\sim}})_{\overset{\sim}{\sim}}$$

is the residual sum of squares, computed as the sum of squares of $t_{\rm L}$ n-r components in z_2 .

The vector of (correlated) residuals $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\hat{\mathbf{y}} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{X}(\mathbf{X}^{\dagger}\mathbf{X})^{\top}\mathbf{X}^{\dagger})\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{P}_{2}\mathbf{P}_{2}^{\dagger}\mathbf{y}$ as in Section 1, and using (4.13) it follows that (4.14) equals $\mathbf{r}^{\dagger}\mathbf{r}$.

5. Estimating estimable functions and testing testable hypotheses

As mentioned in Section 4 we are not directly concerned with the estimation per se of γ . We define L' γ to be an estimable function of γ whenever it admits an unbiased estimator which is linear in γ , $K^{\dagger}\gamma$, say. Thus

(5.1)
$$L^{\dagger}\gamma = E(K^{\dagger}y) = K^{\dagger}X\gamma$$

holds for all γ . Hence

$$(5.2) \qquad L' = K'X \qquad .$$

As in Section 3 we take L^* to be $s \times q$, but now relax the assumption of full row rank taking $r(L) = t \le r$. We obtain

(5.3)
$$\mathbf{r} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{L}^{\dagger} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{x}} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{x}} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{r}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) ,$$

directly from (5.2). Substituting (4.8) into (5.3) gives

(5.4)
$$\mathbf{r} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{L}^{\dagger} \Pi \\ \tilde{\mathbf{r}} \tilde{\mathbf{r}} \\ \mathbf{P} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{R}, \mathbf{S} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{o}}, \tilde{\mathbf{o}} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{o}}, \tilde{\mathbf{o}} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{r} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{L}^{\dagger}_{1}, \mathbf{L}^{\dagger}_{2} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{R}}, \tilde{\mathbf{S}} \\ \tilde{\mathbf{e}} \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{R}) = \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{X}) = \mathbf{r} ,$$

where we partition

$$(5.5) \qquad \mathbf{L}^{\bullet}\boldsymbol{\pi} = (\mathbf{L}^{\bullet}_{1}, \mathbf{L}^{\bullet}_{2}) \quad ,$$

with L_1' sxr, and L_2' sx(q-r). The matrix L_2'''' is the contrast matrix L' with its columns permuted according to the interchanges which

rearrange the columns of X to make the first r columns linearly independent. Then L_1^i are the corresponding r columns of L^i or $L^i\Pi$.

We apply $\ v \geq r$ Householder transformations of order s+r , whose product is $\ V^{\bullet}$, say, so that

$$(5.6) \qquad \bigvee^{t} \begin{pmatrix} L_{1}^{t}, L_{2}^{t} \\ R, S \end{pmatrix} \prod_{i=1}^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} T & U \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} ,$$

where π_1 is a permutation matrix, and T is upper triangular $v \times v$. If (5.6) is achieved at the r-th stage, i.e., v = r, then $L^*\gamma$ is estimable. If not, then $L^*\gamma$ is not estimable.

An alternative procedure which is often easy to verify theoretically follows and is included for completeness.

THEOREM 5.1. The function $L^{*}\gamma$ is estimable if and only if

(5.7)
$$L^{\dagger}(X^{\dagger}X)^{\top}X^{\dagger}X = L^{\dagger}$$

for any $(X'X) = g_1(X'X)$.

<u>Proof.</u> We show that (5.2) and (5.7) are equivalent. Clearly (5.7) implies (5.2); conversely

(5.8)
$$L^{\dagger}(X^{\dagger}X)^{\top}X^{\dagger}X = K^{\dagger}X(X^{\dagger}X)^{\top}X^{\dagger}X = K^{\dagger}X = L^{\dagger} ,$$

since $X(X^{\dagger}X)^{T}X^{\dagger}X = X$ [cf. Pringle and Rayner (1971), p. 26].

Q.E.D.

We may use (5.7) to computationally verify estimability as follows. Substituting (4.8) and (4.9) into (5.7), with $X^* = (X^*X)^TX^*$ gives

(5.9)
$$\underset{\sim}{\text{Lift}} \left(\begin{array}{ccc} I & R^{-1}S \\ O & O \\ O & O \end{array} \right) \underset{\sim}{\text{mi}} = L' .$$

Substituting (5.5) into (5.9) yields

(5.10)
$$\text{Lir}_{1}^{-1} \text{S} = \text{Li}_{2}^{-1}$$

To verify (5.1C), therefore, we solve RW = S for W, say, which equals $R^{-1}S$, with R upper triangular. We then examine $L_1W - L_2^1$ and if close enough to O conclude $L_2^1\gamma$ estimable.

For the remainder of this section we will assume $\frac{1}{2}$ estimable. From (4.3),

(5.11)
$$L^{\dagger}\hat{\gamma} = L^{\dagger}(X^{\dagger}X)^{T}X^{\dagger}y = L^{\dagger}X^{*}y ,$$

where $X^* = (X^*X)^*X^* = g_{123}(X)^*$, cf. (4.9). Thus

(5.12)
$$\underset{\sim}{\text{L}}^{1}\widehat{y} = \underset{\sim}{\text{L}}^{1}\pi \begin{pmatrix} R^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} P^{1}y = \underset{\sim}{\text{L}}^{1}R^{-1}z_{1} ,$$

using (4.12) and (5.5). We compute $L^i\hat{\gamma}$, therefore, by solving $Rw = z_1$ for w, say, which equals $R^{-1}z_1$, with R upper triangular. We then premultiply by L^i_1 which contains the r columns of L^i corresponding to the r linearly independent columns of X which yielded R. We note that $L^i\hat{\gamma}$ is uniquely determined by (5.11) for any $(X^iX)^- = g_1(X^iX)$. To see this, set $L^i = K^iX$ from (5.2), so that $L^i(X^iX)^-X^i = K^iX(X^iX)^-X^i = K^iX(X^iX)^+X^i = L^i(X^iX)^+X^i$, since $X(X^iX)^-X^i$ is unique [cf. Pringle and Rayner (1971), p. 25].

We define the general linear hypothesis

$$(5.13) \qquad L'\gamma = 0$$

as <u>testable</u> whenever $L^{\bullet}\gamma$ is estimable. The numerator of the usual F-test for testable (5.13) is then, cf. (2.2),

$$(5.14) \qquad \hat{\gamma}' L[L'(X'X)] L'\hat{\gamma} = S_h .$$

To see that (5.14) is invariant over choices of $(X^*X)^-$, notice that $L^*(X^*X)^-L = K^*X(X^*X)^-X^*K = K^*X(X^*X)^+X^*K = L^*(X^*X)^+L$ from (5.2). Moreover, (5.14) is also invariant over choices of $[L^*(X^*X)^-L]^-$; writing $X^* = (X^*X)^-X^*$ we find that (5.14) may be written

(5.15)
$$y'(X^*)'L[L'X^*(X^*)'L]^-L'X^*y = S_h$$
,

using (5.7) and (5.11). S_h is uniquely defined since for any A, $A(A^*A)^*A^*$ is unique [cf. Pringle and Rayner (1971), p. 25].

To compute S_h we see from (4.9) and (5.11) that (5.15) may be written

(5.16)
$$S_{h} = z_{1}^{1}(R^{-1})^{1}L_{1}^{1}R^{-1}(R^{-1})^{1}L_{1}^{1}R^{-1}Z_{1}^{1}$$

We obtain an orthogonal triangular decomposition of

(5.17)
$$G = (R^{-1})^*L_1 = Q \begin{pmatrix} B & C \\ C & C \\ C & C \end{pmatrix} \pi_2^*$$
,

say, where B is upper triangular txt, with $t = r(L) = r(L_1)$ by (5.10). The orthogonal matrix Q is the product of t Householder transformations, while the permutation matrix π_2 rearranges the columns of L_1 , $r \times s$,

to make the first t linearly independent. Substituting (5.17) into (5.16) yields

(5.18)
$$S_h = z_1^* G G^* z_1$$
,

where $G^* = g_{123}(G)$ is given by

(5.19)
$$g^* = \pi_2 \begin{pmatrix} g^{-1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} Q^{-1}$$
.

We partition $Q = (Q_1, Q_2)$, where Q_1 is $r \times t$ and Q_2 $r \times (r-t)$. [If t = r, $Q_1 = Q$.] Then (5.18) reduces to

(5.20)
$$S_h = z_1^i Q_1 Q_1^i z_1$$
,

as at (2.5). We compute (5.20) by applying the t Householder transformations of Q in (5.17) to z_1 simultaneously with G and then summing the squares of the first t components of the transformed z_1 .

If we test the hypothesis

$$(5.21) \qquad \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{L}}^{\dagger} \gamma = \underset{\sim}{\mathbf{m}}$$

and L' is $s \times q$ with row rank t < s then m must satisfy the same s-t restrictions that apply to the rows of L', i.e., (5.21) must be consistent. Then the numerator sum of squares is uniquely given by

(5.22)
$$(\hat{\gamma}^{\prime}L - m^{\prime})[L^{\prime}(X^{\prime}X)^{T}L](L^{\prime}\hat{\gamma} - m) = S_{h}$$
;

following (5.15) and (5.16) we see that

(5.23)
$$L'(X'X)^{-}L = L_{1}^{1}R^{-1}(R^{-1})^{1}L_{1} = G'G$$

for which we want a g₁-inverse. We use

LEMMA 5.1. If
$$A^* = g_{123}(A)$$
, then

(5.24)
$$A^*(A^*)^* = g_{12}(A^*A)$$
.

Proof. From (4.4), (4.5) and (4.6) we have

(5.25)
$$AA^*A = A$$
, $A^*AA^* = A^*$, $AA^* = (A^*)^*A^*$.

Hence $A^*(A^*)^*A^*A = A^*AA^*A = A^*A$. Thus $A^*A[A^*(A^*)^*A^*A] = A^*AA^*A = A^*A$ and $[A^*(A^*)^*A^*A]A^*(A^*)^* = A^*AA^*(A^*)^* = A^*(A^*)^*$.

Q.E.D.

From Lemma 5.1 we obtain

(5.26)
$$g^*(g^*)' = [L'(X'X)]L$$
$$= \pi_{21}B^{-1}(B^{-1})'\pi_{21}'$$

from (5.19), where we partition $\pi_2 = (\pi_{21}, \pi_{22})$, with π_{21} , sxt, identifying t linearly independent columns of L_1 , rxs. Hence

$$(5.27) S_{h} = (\hat{\tilde{y}}^{\dagger} \tilde{L} - \tilde{m}^{\dagger}) \tilde{\pi}_{21} \tilde{B}^{-1} (\tilde{B}^{-1})^{\dagger} \tilde{\pi}_{21}^{\dagger} (\tilde{L}^{\dagger} \hat{\tilde{y}} - \tilde{m}) .$$

First $L^{\dagger}\hat{\gamma} - m$ is computed and rearranged to form $\mathbb{Z}_{21}^{\dagger}(L^{\dagger}\hat{\gamma} - m) = h$, say. Then $h = B^{\dagger}k$ is solved for k = k, where k = k is lower triangular. Finally $k = (B^{-1})^{\dagger}h = (B^{-1})^{\dagger}\mathbb{Z}_{21}^{\dagger}(L^{\dagger}\hat{\gamma} - m)$.

The relevant F-test for the hypotheses (5.13) or (5.21) is then computed as

(5.28)
$$F = \frac{S_h/t}{S_e/(n-r)} ,$$

cf. (2.13), with the critical region formed by values of (5.28) exceeding the corresponding tabulated value of F with t and n-r degrees of freedom.

The above procedures simplify slightly when the contrast matrix L^* , $s \times q$, has full rank $s \leq r = r(X)$. In that case (5.23) becomes non-singular and the results of Lemma 5.1 arc not needed. We use

LEMMA 5.2. When $L^{\dagger}\gamma$ is estimable,

(5.29)
$$r[\underline{L}^{\bullet}(\underline{X}^{\bullet}\underline{X})^{\top}\underline{L}] = r(\underline{L}) ,$$

where $r(\cdot)$ denotes rank.

$$\frac{\text{Proof.}}{\text{r}[\underline{L}^{!}(\underline{X}^{!}\underline{X})^{\top}\underline{X}^{!}\underline{X}]} \leq \text{r}[\underline{L}^{!}(\underline{X}^{!}\underline{X})^{\top}\underline{X}^{!}\underline{X}] \leq \text{r}[\underline{L}^{!}(\underline{X}^{!}\underline{X})^{\top}\underline{X}^{!}] = \text{r}[\underline{L}^{!}(\underline{X}^{!}\underline{X})^{\top}\underline{X}^{!}\underline{X}] \leq \text{r}[\underline{L}^{!}(\underline{X}^{!}\underline{X})^{\top}\underline{X}] \leq \text{r}[\underline{L}^{!}$$

Q.E.D.

When L', $s \times q$, has full row rank $s \leq r$ the decomposition (5.17) becomes

(5.30)
$$\overset{G}{\sim} = Q \begin{pmatrix} B \\ O \\ O \end{pmatrix} \underset{\sim}{\pi_{21}}$$

say, where n_{21} is now sxs and may equal n_{21} (no column interchanges). Formula (5.27) applies with essentially no change.

We defer discussion of updating techniques for the less than full rank case and extensions to multivariate models to a further paper. A computer program in Fortran IV for the IBM 360 is being developed for the procedures discussed in this paper.

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